

# Math188 - HW #5

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## 1.

Suppose  $f(x) = \sum a_n x^n$ ,  $f(x) \neq 0$ , has a square root, say  $g(x) = \sum b_n x^n$ . By multiplication in  $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$ ,

$$a_n = \sum_{i=0}^n b_i b_{n-i} \quad (1)$$

Assume  $a_0 = a_1 = \dots = a_{2n} = 0$ . To prove that  $\text{mdeg}(f)$  is even, it suffices to show that  $a_{2n+1} = 0$ . By (1) and the fact that  $2n+1$  is odd,

$$a_{2n+1} = 2 \sum_{i=0}^n b_i b_{2n+1-i} \quad (2)$$

One can induct on  $i$  to show that each  $b_i = 0$  for  $0 \leq i \leq n$ . When  $i = 0$ ,  $a_0 = b_0 b_0 = 0 \implies b_0 = 0$ . Suppose for  $0 \leq i < n$  that  $b_0 = b_1 = \dots = b_i = 0$ . Since  $2i+2 \leq 2(n-1)+2 = 2n$ ,

$$a_{2i+2} = 0 = 2 \sum_{j=0}^i b_j b_{2i+2-j} + b_{i+1}^2$$

Because  $b_j = 0$  for each summand,  $a_{2i+2} = 0 = b_{i+1}^2 = 0 \implies b_{i+1} = 0$ , as was to be shown. Since  $b_0 = b_1 = \dots = b_n = 0$ , it is clear that (2) is equal to 0.

Conversely, let  $f(x) = \sum a_n x^n$ ,  $f(x) \neq 0$  with  $\text{mdeg}(f) = 2k$ . Let  $g(x) = \sum b_n x^n$  with  $b_n$  defined as such:

- $b_0 = b_1 = b_{k-1} := 0$ .
- $b_k := \sqrt{a_{2k}}$ , where  $b_k \neq 0$  since  $a_{2k} \neq 0$  by definition of  $f$ .
- Suppose  $b_0, b_1, \dots, b_n$  is defined for  $n \geq k$ . Then let  $b_{n+1} := \sqrt{a_{2(n+1)} - 2 \sum_{i=0}^n b_i b_{2(n+1)-i}}$

Then one can check that  $g(x)^2 = f(x)$  (e.g., via calculation demonstrated in the previous paragraph).

**2.**

(a)

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n &= \sum_{n \geq 0} n^2 x^n \\
&= \sum_{n \geq 0} \left[ x^2 \frac{d^2}{dx^2}(x^n) + nx^n \right] \\
&= x^2 \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \left( \sum_{n \geq 0} x^n \right) + \sum_{n \geq 0} nx^n \\
&= \frac{2x^2}{(1-x)^3} + \frac{x}{(1-x)^2} \\
&= \frac{x^2+x}{(1-x)^3}
\end{aligned}$$

(b)

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n &= \sum_{n \geq 0} \binom{n}{k} x^n \\
&= \sum_{n \geq k} \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} x^n \\
&= \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{n \geq k} n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)x^n \\
&= \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{n \geq k} x^k \frac{d^k}{dx^k}(x^n) \\
&= \frac{x^k}{k!} \frac{d^k}{dx^k} \left( \sum_{n \geq k} x^n \right) \\
&= \frac{x^k}{k!} \frac{k!}{(1-x)^k} \\
&= \frac{x^k}{(1-x)^k}
\end{aligned}$$

(c)

Let  $A(x) := \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n x^n$ .

$$\begin{aligned} A(x) - a_0 &= \sum_{n \geq 0} a_{n+1} x^{n+1} \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 0} \left(\frac{a_n}{3} + 1\right) x^{n+1} \\ &= \frac{x}{3} A(x) + \frac{x}{1-x} \end{aligned}$$

which gives

$$\begin{aligned} A(x)\left(1 - \frac{x}{3}\right) &= \frac{x}{1-x} + \frac{1-x}{1-x} \\ \implies A(x) &= \frac{1}{1-x} \cdot \frac{3}{3-x} \\ &= \frac{3}{2(1-x)} - \frac{3}{2(3-x)} \end{aligned}$$

### 3.

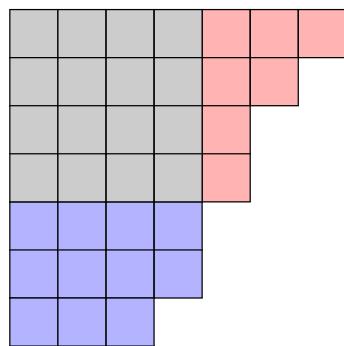
The equality to demonstrate is

$$\prod_{i \geq 1} \frac{1}{1-q^i} = \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{q^{k^2}}{\prod_{i=1}^k (1-q^i)^2} \quad (1)$$

The left hand side of (1) is the generating function

$$\sum_{\text{partitions } \lambda} q^{|\lambda|}$$

The only partition that doesn't have a Durfee square (i.e., a Durfee square of size 0) is the empty partition. Any nonempty partition  $\lambda$  has a Durfee square of size at least 1; suppose the Durfee square of  $\lambda$  is of size  $k$ . For example, if  $k = 4$ , then  $\lambda$  looks something like this:



Notice that for any partition with a Durfee square of size  $k$ , the pink blocks form a Young diagram with at most  $k$  parts, while the blue blocks form a Young diagram with the first part of size at most  $k$ . Conjugating the pink partition, the pink young diagram is a partition whose first part has size at most  $k$ . Finally, observe that the Durfee square contributes  $k^2$  blocks to  $\lambda$ . This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\text{partitions } \lambda} q^{|\lambda|} &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \sum_{\substack{\text{partitions } \lambda, \\ \text{ds}(\lambda)=k}} q^{|\lambda|} \\ &= \sum_{k \geq 0} q^{k^2} (1+q+q^2+\dots)^2 (1+q^2+q^4+\dots)^2 \cdots (1+q^k+q^{2k}+\dots)^2 \\ &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{q^{k^2}}{\prod_{i=1}^k (1-q^i)^2} \end{aligned}$$

where  $\text{ds}(\lambda)$  denotes the size of the Durfee square of  $\lambda$ . This proves the desired identity.

## 4.

The equality to demonstrate is

$$\prod_{i \geq 0} (1+q^{2i+1}) = \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{q^{k^2}}{\prod_{i=1}^k (1-q^{2i})} \quad (1)$$

Notice that the left hand side of (1) is the generating function

$$\sum_{\substack{\text{partitions } \lambda \\ \text{with distinct odd parts}}} q^{|\lambda|} = (1+q)(1+q^3)(1+q^5)\cdots$$

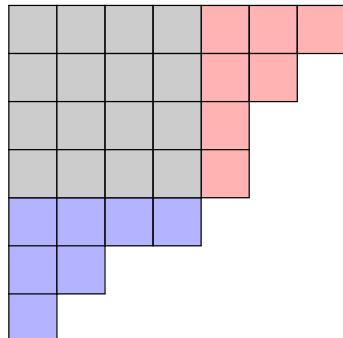
Recall the bijection  $\{\lambda \vdash n \mid \lambda = \lambda'\} \longleftrightarrow \{\lambda \vdash n \mid \lambda \text{ has distinct odd parts}\}$ . So in general, there is a bijection

$$\{\text{partition } \lambda \mid \lambda = \lambda'\} \longleftrightarrow \{\text{partition } \lambda \mid \lambda \text{ has distinct odd parts}\}$$

where both the forward map and the reverse map preserve the size of the partition. Hence the left hand side of (1) is

$$\sum_{\substack{\text{partitions } \lambda, \\ \lambda = \lambda'}} q^{|\lambda|}$$

Notice that any partition  $\lambda$  with  $\lambda = \lambda'$  has a Young diagram that looks like this:



To verbally describe it, if  $\lambda$  has a Durfee square of size  $k$ , the pink blocks form a Young diagram with at most  $k$  parts, the blue blocks form a Young diagram whose first part has size at most  $k$ , and the pink Young diagram and blue Young diagram are conjugates of each other. Thus  $|\lambda| = k^2 + 2|\lambda_{\text{pink}}|$ . This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\substack{\text{partitions } \lambda, \\ \lambda = \lambda'}} q^{|\lambda|} &= \sum_{k \geq 0} q^{k^2} (1 + q^2 + q^4 + \dots) (1 + q^4 + q^8 + \dots) \cdots (1 + q^{2k} + q^{4k} + \dots) \\ &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{q^{k^2}}{\prod_{i=1}^k (1 - q^{2i})} \end{aligned}$$

as was to be shown.

## 5.

The whatever derivative rule gives

$$\frac{d^k}{dx^k} (1+x)^a = a(a-1) \cdots (a-k+1) (1+x)^{a-k}$$

Thus the Taylor expansion of  $f(x) = (1+x)^a$  is

$$\begin{aligned} (1+x)^a &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{f^{(k)}(0)}{k!} x^k \\ &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{a(a-1) \cdots (a-k+1)}{k!} x^k \\ &= \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{a}{k} x^k \end{aligned}$$

Next, I show that  $(1+x)^a (1+x)^b = (1+x)^{a+b}$  as power series. Rewriting the left-hand side as power series,

$$\left( \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{a}{k} x^k \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{b}{k} x^k \right) = \sum_{k \geq 0} c_k x^k \quad (1)$$

where

$$c_k = \sum_{i+j=k} \binom{a}{i} \binom{b}{j}$$

View  $c_k$  as a polynomial in  $a$ . If  $a$  is any integer, then

$$c_k := \sum_{i+j=k} \binom{a}{i} \binom{b}{j} = \binom{a+b}{k}$$

by the following combinatorial proof: The right hand side counts the number of ways to choose  $k$  elements from  $[a+b]$ . The total number of ways to do so is the sum of the number of ways to choose  $0 \leq i \leq k$  elements from  $[a]$ , then choose the remaining  $k-i$  elements from  $[b]$ , which is the left hand side.

Uh technically the above proof only holds if  $b$  is also an integer, and for two polynomials in  $\mathbb{C}[a, b]$ , showing that they agree on infinitely many pairs  $(a_0, b_0)$  doesn't prove that the two polynomials are identical, but oh well, I tried my best. Assuming  $c_k = \binom{a+b}{k}$  identically, (1) is equal to

$$(x + 1)^{a+b}$$

as was to be shown.

## 6.

Let

$$b_n := \begin{cases} (n-1)!, & \text{if } n \in \{1, 2, 3, 6\} \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

In other words, if  $n \in \{1, 2, 3, 6\}$ ,  $b_n$  is the number of ways to form an  $n$ -cycle in  $[n]$ ; if  $n$  is not a divisor of 6, then forcibly set the number of ways to structure  $[n]$  to be zero.

Now, since  $a_n$  counts the number of  $w \in \mathfrak{S}_n$  such that  $w^6 = 1$ , which is equivalently the number of  $w \in \mathfrak{S}_n$  whose cycle decomposition only consists of 1, 2, 3, and 6-cycles,  $a_n$  can be interpreted as the number of ways to:

1. Partition  $[n]$  into  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$  such that the size of each  $B_i \in \{1, 2, 3, 6\}$ .
2. For each  $B_i$ , put the elements of  $B_i$  into a single cycle.

As such, the following exponentiation makes sense:

$$\begin{aligned} A(x) &:= \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{a_n}{n!} x^n = \exp\left(\sum_{m \geq 0} \frac{b_m}{m!} x^m\right) \\ &= \exp\left(x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^6}{6}\right) \end{aligned}$$

## 7.

$c_n$  can be interpreted as the number of ways to:

1. Partition  $[n]$  into  $B_1, \dots, B_k$ .
2. For each  $B_i$ , single out a single element, then form a single cycle out of the rest of the elements.

Namely, if  $\#B_i = m > 1$ , then the number of ways to achieve (2) is  $m(m-2)!$ . If  $\#B_i = 1$ , then of course the number of ways to achieve (2) is just 1. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} C(x) &:= \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{c_n}{n!} x^n = \exp\left(x + \sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{m(m-2)!}{m!} x^m\right) \\ &= \exp\left(x + \sum_{m \geq 1} \frac{x^{m+1}}{m}\right) \\ &= \exp(x - x \log(1-x)) \\ &= e^x e^{-x \log(1-x)} \\ &= e^x \left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right)^{-x} \end{aligned}$$

## 8.

\*\*\* I accidentally made  $c_n = \#$  of decorated permutations in  $\mathfrak{S}_n$  instead of  $b_n$ !!!

Define

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &:= \# \text{ of ways to form a single cycle from } [n] \\ &= (n-1)!, \\ b_n &:= \# \text{ of ways to pick a single element from } [n] \\ &= n \end{aligned}$$

and let

$$\begin{aligned} A(x) &:= \sum_{n \geq 1} a_n \frac{x^n}{n!} \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{x^n}{n} \\ &= -\log(1-x) \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} B(x) &:= \sum_{n \geq 0} b_n \frac{x^n}{n!} \\ &= \sum_{n \geq 0} n \frac{x^n}{n!} \\ &= xe^x \end{aligned}$$

Now, note that  $c_n$  counts the number of ways to:

1. partition  $[n]$  into  $B_1, \dots, B_k$ .
2. For each  $B_i$ , form a single cycle from the elements of  $B_i$ .

3. Pick one block from  $B_1, \dots, B_k$  (to decorate it)

Particularly, for each  $B_i$ , if  $\#B_i = m$ , (2) is given by  $a_m$ . If  $[n]$  is partitioned into  $k$  blocks  $B_1, \dots, B_k$ , then (3) is given by  $b_k$ . This means

$$\begin{aligned} C(x) &:= \sum_{n \geq 0} c_n \frac{x^n}{n!} = B(A(x)) \\ &= (-\log(1-x))e^{-\log(1-x)} \\ &= \frac{-\log(1-x)}{1-x} \end{aligned}$$